

Innovative Urban Wet-Weather Flow Management Systems

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Foreword

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E. Timothy Oppelt, Director
National Risk Management Research Laboratory

Abstract

This research project describes innovative methods to develop improved wet weather flow (WWF) management systems for urban developments of the 21st century. This document addresses the competing objectives of providing drainage services at the same time as decreasing stormwater pollutant discharges. Water quality aspects of WWF discharges and associated receiving water problems have only been studied for a relatively short period (a few decades), compared to conventional drainage designs (a few centuries), and few large-scale drainage systems adequately address both of these suitable objectives.

General principles of urban water management are presented that might permit the development of more sustainable systems by integrating the traditionally separate functions of providing water supply, collecting, treating, and disposing of wastewater, and handling urban WWF. Integration can be achieved by designing neighborhood scale, integrated infrastructure systems wherein treated wastewater and stormwater are reused for nonpotable purposes such as lawn watering and toilet flushing. The automobile is seen to have caused major changes in urban land use in the 20th century. For the average urban family, the area devoted to streets and parking in their neighborhood exceeds the area devoted to living. Similarly, more area is devoted to parking than to office and commercial space in urban areas. The net result of the large scale changes to accommodate the automobile in cities is about a two to three fold increase in impervious area per family and business activity.

The physical, chemical, and biological water quality characteristics of urban runoff are evaluated and summarized. Then, the impacts of urban WWF on receiving waters are evaluated. These impacts on surface and groundwater are complex and difficult to evaluate. Physical changes in smaller urban streams can be detected in terms of degraded channels from higher peak flows. Also, sediment transport characteristics change with urbanization. Toxic effects on aquatic organisms have been detected.

Traditionally, wet-weather collection systems were designed to move stormwater from the urban area as quickly as possible. This design approach often simply transferred the problem from upstream to downstream areas. More recently, restrictions on the allowable maximum rate of runoff have forced developing areas to include onsite storage in detention ponds to control these peak rates of runoff. On-site detention also allows smaller pipe sizes downstream. In the early part of the 20th century, communities relied on combined sewers. Later, separate storm and sanitary sewers became accepted practice. However, as the need to treat more contaminated storm water becomes more apparent, it is necessary to take a fresh look at combined sewers. However, because of the strong trend to lower density urban development to accommodate the automobile, the quantity of urban runoff per family is two to three times what it was with higher density developments. Most of the traffic flow in cities occurs on a relatively small percentage of streets, about 10-20%. Also, most parking areas are underutilized. Thus, it may be possible to focus WWF treatment on these

more intensively used areas including commercial and industrial areas. This finding suggests that hybrid collection systems may be attractive alternatives for 21st century collection systems. Another innovative option is to oversize sewer systems and utilize storage in the sewers as part of a real-time control system.

Extensive discussions regarding the effectiveness of a wide variety of WWF controls are presented in two chapters. These descriptions include design guidelines. Source controls as well as downstream controls are included. Source area controls, especially biofiltration practices that can be easily implemented with simple grading, may be appropriate in newly developing areas. In addition, critical source areas (such as vehicle service facilities) may require more extensive onsite treatment strategies. An innovative approach is to reuse stormwater within the same service areas for irrigation, toilet flushing, and other nonpotable purposes. More aggressive stormwater reuse systems would capture roof runoff in cisterns, treat this water, and use it for potable purposes. Monthly water budgets for cities throughout the United States indicates that sufficient quantities of precipitation are generated, except in the arid southwestern United States, to make such systems technically feasible. The cost of providing for water infrastructure is summarized. The traditional problem of finding the optimal size of service area for water supply is addressed by finding the minimum sum of the costs of source acquisition, treatment, and distribution. For wastewater and stormwater, the minimum total cost is the sum of collection, treatment, and disposal. These costs per residence have grown substantially as development densities have decreased. Also, if wastewater and stormwater reuse are included, then the optimal size of infrastructure system may be at the neighborhood scale since piping costs remain the largest single cost in urban water infrastructure.

Lastly, institutional arrangements need to change in order to successfully implement changes in how urban water infrastructure is managed. Privatization, moving from large centralizes systems to neighborhood based systems, and other projected changes required innovative changes in the governing institutions.

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Contents

Notice.....	ii
Forward.....	iii
Abstract.....	iv
Tables.....	xviii
Figures.....	xxii
Abbreviations and Symbols.....	xxvi
Acknowledgments.....	xxix

Chapter 1	Introduction	1-1
	James P. Heaney, Robert Pitt, and Richard Field	

Introduction.....	1-1
Chapter 2: Principles of Integrated Urban Water Management.....	1-1
Chapter 3: Sustainable Urban Water Management.....	1-1
Chapter 4: Source Characterization.....	1-2
Chapter 5: Receiving Water and Other Impacts.....	1-2
Chapter 6: Collection Systems.....	1-3
Chapter 7: Assessment of Stormwater Best Management Practice Technology.....	1-3
Chapter 8: Stormwater Storage-Treatment-Reuse Systems.....	1-3
Chapter 9: Urban Stormwater and Watershed Management: A Case Study.....	1-4
Chapter 10: Cost Analysis and Financing of Urban Water Infrastructure.....	1-4
Chapter 11: Institutional Arrangements.....	1-5

Chapter 2	Principles of Integrated Urban Water Management	2-1
	James P. Heaney	

Introduction.....	2-1
The Neighborhood Spatial Scale.....	2-1
Trends in Urbanization.....	2-1
Historical Patterns.....	2-1
Impact of the Automobile.....	2-2
Impact of Subdivision Regulations.....	2-5
Contemporary Neighborhoods and Urban Sprawl.....	2-5
Historical Infrastructure Development Patterns.....	2-7
Interceptor Sewers and Urban Sprawl.....	2-8
Federal Housing and Urban Development Programs.....	2-9
Federal Transportation Programs.....	2-10
Summary of the Impacts of Federal Urban Programs.....	2-10

Possible New Approaches.....	2-11
Neo-traditional Neighborhoods.....	2-11
Related EPA Activities Dealing with Urban Growth Patterns.....	2-13
Green Development.....	2-13
Studies of Chesapeake Bay.....	2-14
Brownfield Redevelopment.....	2-15
Sustainability Principles for Urban Infrastructure.....	2-16
Sustainability and Optimal Size of Infrastructure Systems.....	2-18
Models for Evaluating Future Infrastructure.....	2-19
Research Initiatives Related to Urban Infrastructure.....	2-20
Transportation/Land Use Strategies to Alleviate Congestion.....	2-21
Projected Future Trends.....	2-21
Origins of Stormwater in Urban Areas.....	2-22
Introduction.....	2-22
Rainfall-Runoff Relationships at the Neighborhood Scale.....	2-22
Previous Studies of Imperviousness.....	2-25
Sources of Urban Runoff.....	2-28
Categories of Urban Catchments.....	2-28
How Imperviousness Varies for Different Types of Urban Developments.....	2-30
Pre-Automobile Neighborhoods.....	2-31
Imperviousness in Pre-Automobile Era.....	2-35
Pre-Expressway Neighborhoods.....	2-35
Results for Pre-Expressway Era.....	2-35
Post-Expressway Neighborhoods.....	2-35
General Conclusions Regarding the Effect of Changing Land Use.....	2-39
Components of Urban Land Use and Stormwater Problems.....	2-45
Streets and Highways.....	2-45
Street Classification and Utilization.....	2-48
Recommendations for Residential Streets.....	2-48
Streets and Stormwater Runoff.....	2-49
Parking.....	2-49
Lot Size.....	2-53
Dwelling Unit Footprint.....	2-53

Covered Porches and Patios.....	2-54
Garages and Carports.....	2-54
Driveways.....	2-54
Attached, Front Facing Garage.....	2-55
Attached, Side or Rear Facing Garage.....	2-55
Detached Garage in Rear of Lot.....	2-55
Pervious Area on Property.....	2-55
Alleys.....	2-56
Sidewalks.....	2-56
Curb and Gutter and Swales.....	2-57
Planting Strip Between Street and Sidewalk.....	2-57
Overall Right of Way.....	2-57
Will Americans Reduce Auto Use?.....	2-58
Summary and Conclusions.....	2-58
References.....	2-60
 Chapter 3 Sustainable Urban Water Management	3-1
James P. Heaney, Len Wright, and David Sample	
Introduction.....	3-1
Systems View of Urban Water Management.....	3-1
Sustainability Principles of Urban Water Infrastructure.....	3-3
Urban Water Budget.....	3-6
Literature Review.....	3-6
Dry Weather Urban Water Budget.....	3-8
Indoor Urban Residential Water Use.....	3-9
Toilet Flushing.....	3-13
Clothes Washing.....	3-14
Showers and Baths.....	3-14
Faucet Use.....	3-14
Dishwashers.....	3-14
Water Use for Cooling.....	3-15
Outdoor Urban Residential Water Use.....	3-15
Infiltration and Inflow.....	3-17
Summary of Sources of Dry-Weather Flow into Sanitary and Combined Sewers.....	3-17
Quantities of Precipitation in Urban Areas.....	3-20

Results of Water Budget Case Studies.....	3-20
Arizona.....	3-20
Germany.....	3-24
Melborne, Australia.....	3-25
Adelaide, Australia.....	3-26
Simulated Monthly Urban Water Budgets for Denver and New York.....	3-31
General.....	3-31
Water Use.....	3-31
Indoor Water Use.....	3-31
Outdoor Water Use.....	3-32
Total Water Use.....	3-32
Wastewater.....	3-35
Stormwater Runoff.....	3-38
Summary Water Budgets.....	3-38
Future Urban Water Scenarios.....	3-39
References.....	3-43
 Chapter 4 Source Characterization	4-1
Robert Pitt	
The Source Concept.....	4-1
Sources and Characteristics of Urban Runoff Pollutants.....	4-2
Chemical Quality of Rocks and Soils.....	4-5
Street Dust and Dirt Pollutant Sources.....	4-6
Characteristics.....	4-6
Street Dirt Accumulation.....	4-8
Washoff of Street Dirt.....	4-12
Observed Particle Size Distributions in Stormwater.....	4-27
Atmospheric Sources of Urban Runoff Pollutants.....	4-28
Source Area Sheetflow and Particulate Quality.....	4-35
Source Area Particulate Quality.....	4-35
Warm Weather Sheetflow Quality.....	4-35
Other Pollutant Contributions to the Storm Drainage System.....	4-48

Sources of Stormwater Toxicants.....	4-48
Analyses and Sampling.....	4-49
Potential Sources.....	4-53
Results.....	4-53
References.....	4-60
 Chapter 5 Receiving Water and Other Impacts	5-1
Robert Pitt	
Desired Water Uses Versus Stormwater Impacts.....	5-1
Toxicological Effects of Stormwater.....	5-2
Ecological Effects of Stormwater.....	5-3
Fates of Stormwater Pollutants in Surface Waters.....	5-8
Human Health Effects of Stormwater.....	5-9
Groundwater Impacts from Stormwater Infiltration.....	5-10
Constituents of Concern.....	5-10
Nutrients.....	5-10
Pesticides.....	5-10
Other Organics.....	5-11
Pathogenic Microorganisms.....	5-12
Heavy Metals and Other Inorganic Compounds.....	5-12
Salts.....	5-13
Recommendations for Protection of Groundwater During Stormwater Infiltration.....	5-13
References.....	5-20
 Chapter 6 Collection Systems	6-1
James P. Heaney, Len Wright, and David Sample	
Introduction.....	6-1
Problems Commonly Associated with Present Day Collection Systems.....	6-3
Combined Systems.....	6-4
Inflow and Infiltration.....	6-6
Inflow.....	6-6

Infiltration.....	6-7
Inflow/Infiltration Analysis and Design Challenges.....	6-8
Sanitary Sewer Overflows.....	6-18
Separate Stormwater Collection Systems and Non-Point Sources.....	6-20
Solids and Their Effect on Sewer Design and Operation.....	6-21
Predicting Pollutant Transport in Collection Systems.....	6-25
Characteristics and Treatability of Solids in Collection Systems.....	6-26
Innovative Collection System Design - The State of the Art.....	6-26
Current Innovative Technologies - Review of Case Studies.....	6-27
Data Management, SCADA, Real Time Control.....	6-27
Sanitary Sewer Technology - Vacuum Sewers.....	6-29
Low Pressure Sewers.....	6-30
Small Diameter Gravity Sewers.....	6-33
Black Water/Gray Water Separation Systems.....	6-33
Waste/Source Separation.....	6-33
Composting.....	6-35
Combined Systems for the Future?.....	6-35
Future Directions: Collection Systems of the 21 st Century.....	6-35
Future Collection System Scenarios.....	6-36
High Density Areas.....	6-36
Suburban Development.....	6-37
References.....	6-38

Chapter 7 Assessment of Stormwater Best Management

Practice Effectiveness 7-1

Ben Urbonas

Introduction.....	7-1
Objectives in the Use of Best Management Practices for Stormwater Quality Management.....	7-2
Non-Structural Best Management Practices.....	7-5
Structural Best Management Practices.....	7-6
Minimized Directly Connected Impervious Area.....	7-6
Water Quality Inlets.....	7-8

Infiltration Practices.....	7-8
Filter Basins and Filter Inlets.....	7-9
Swirl-Type Concentrators.....	7-9
Extended Detention Basins.....	7-9
Retention Ponds.....	7-9
Wetlands.....	7-10
Stormwater Quality Management Hydrology.....	7-10
An Assessment of Best Management Practice Effectiveness.....	7-12
Non-Structural Best Management Practices.....	7-12
Pollutant Source Controls.....	7-13
Public Education and Citizen Involvement Programs.....	7-14
Street Sweeping, Leaf Pickup and Deicing Programs.....	7-15
Local Government Rules and Regulations.....	7-15
Elimination of Illicit Discharges.....	7-15
Structural Best Management Practices: Design Considerations.....	7-16
Local Climate.....	7-16
Design Storm.....	7-16
Nature of Pollutants.....	7-16
Operation and Maintenance.....	7-18
On-Site or Regional Control.....	7-18
Structural Best Management Practices: Performance.....	7-19
Minimized Directly Connected Impervious Area.....	7-19
Grass Swales.....	7-20
Grass Buffer Strips.....	7-20
Porous Pavement.....	7-21
Percolation Trenches.....	7-21
Infiltration Basins.....	7-22
Media Filter Basins and Filter Inlets.....	7-22
Water Quality Inlets.....	7-23
Swirl-Type Concentrators.....	7-24
Extended Detention Basins.....	7-24
Retention Ponds.....	7-25
Wetlands.....	7-26
Summary on Best Management Practices Effectiveness.....	7-28
Non-Structural Best Management Practices.....	7-28
Structural Best Management Practices.....	7-29

The Definition of Effectiveness.....	7-29
Research and Design Technology Development Needs.....	7-30
Design Robustness.....	7-31
Runoff Impacts Mitigation.....	7-31
Summary of the Usability of the Evaluated Best Management Practices.....	7-33
Stormwater Systems of the Future.....	7-35
Use of Combined Wastewater and Storm Sewer Systems.....	7-36
Use of Separate Stormwater Systems.....	7-37
Closing Remarks.....	7-39
References.....	7-41
 Chapter 8 Stormwater Storage-Treatment-Reuse Systems	8-1
James P. Heaney, Len Wright, and David Sample	
Introduction.....	8-1
Stormwater Treatment.....	8-1
Effect of Initial Concentration.....	8-1
Effect of Change of Storage.....	8-1
Effect of Mixing Regime.....	8-1
Effect of Nature of the Suspended Solids.....	8-2
Essential Features of Future Wet-Weather Control Facilities.....	8-2
High-Rate Operation of Wastewater Treatment Plants.....	8-2
Stormwater Reuse Systems.....	8-2
Introduction.....	8-2
Previous Studies.....	8-3
Estimating the Demand for Urban Irrigation Water.....	8-7
Urban Water Budgets.....	8-7
Water Budget Concepts.....	8-8
Methods of Analysis.....	8-11
Results.....	8-15
Conclusions.....	8-22
References.....	8-23

Chapter 9	Urban Stormwater and Watershed Management:	
	A Case Study	9-1
	James P. Heaney, Len Wright, and David Sample	
Overview		9-1
Watershed Planning Methodologies		9-1
Contemporary Principles of Watershed Management		9-2
American Water Resources Association		9-2
Water Environment Federation		9-3
U.S. Environmental Protection Agency		9-3
Case Study of Urban Stormwater Management within a Watershed Framework:		9-3
Introduction		9-3
Hydrology		9-4
Introduction		9-4
Precipitation Analysis		9-7
Streamflow Stations		9-8
North Boulder Creek		9-8
Middle Boulder Creek		9-8
South Boulder Creek		9-16
Groundwater		9-17
Land Use and Growth Management in Boulder Valley		9-17
General		9-17
Relative Importance of Urban Land Use		9-18
Water Management Infrastructure		9-23
Storage		9-23
Canals		9-23
Control Works		9-23
Pipelines		9-24
Imports and Exports		9-24
Current Water Management System		9-24
Water Quantity		9-24

Municipal Water Supply and Wastewater Return.....	9-24
Agricultural Water Supply.....	9-25
Flood Control.....	9-25
Greenway Program.....	9-29
Hydropower.....	9-32
Instream Flow Needs.....	9-32
Importation of Water.....	9-34
Overall Water Budget for Boulder.....	9-34
Sources.....	9-35
Sinks.....	9-35
Annual Water Budget.....	9-35
Monthly Water Budget.....	9-36
Daily Water Budget.....	9-41
Hourly Water Budget.....	9-41
Conclusions Drawn from the Water Budget.....	9-44
Urban Stormwater Quality.....	9-45
Stormwater Pollution in Boulder.....	9-45
Agricultural Water Quality.....	9-45
Forest Fires.....	9-45
Highway Runoff.....	9-45
Mining Runoff.....	9-46
Urban Stormwater Quality.....	9-46
Recreation and Water Quality in Boulder Creek.....	9-47
Wastewater Characteristics.....	9-47
Removal Efficiencies.....	9-51
Sanitary Sewer Overflows.....	9-51
Overall Receiving Water Quality Impacts.....	9-51
Upper Section-Boulder Creek Immediately Above the City.....	9-55
Middle Section-Boulder Creek at 28 th St.....	9-55
Lower Section-Boulder Creek Below 75 th St.....	9-55
Risk-Based Analysis of Urban Runoff Quality.....	9-56
Covariance Between Concentration and Flow.....	9-57
Covariance Between Upstream Flow and Urban Runoff.....	9-57
References.....	9-61

Chapter 10	Cost Analysis and Financing of Urban Water Infrastructure	10-1
	James P. Heaney, David Sample, and Len Wright	
Introduction.....		10-1
Demand for Water Infrastructure.....		10-1
Effect of Density on Imperviousness.....		10-1
Effect of Density on Pipe Length.....		10-1
Water Supply.....		10-6
Wastewater.....		10-7
Stormwater.....		10-7
Optimal Scale of the Urban Water System.....		10-7
Costs of Infrastructure Components.....		10-11
Cost of Piping.....		10-11
Cost of Treatment.....		10-18
Cost of Storage.....		10-21
Summary of Costs for Urban Stormwater Systems.....		10-23
Financing Methods.....		10-23
Tax Funded System.....		10-24
Service Charge Funded System.....		10-25
Exactions and Impact Fees.....		10-26
Special Assessment Districts.....		10-26
Conclusions on Finance.....		10-26
References.....		10-27
 Chapter 11	 Institutional Arrangements	 11-1
	Jonathan Jones, Jane Clary, and Ted Brown	
Introduction.....		11-1
Existing Models of Stormwater Management Institutions.....		11-1
Required Characteristics of Stormwater Management Institutions.....		11-4
Specific Issues to be Addressed by Stormwater Management Institutions.....		11-5
Financing.....		11-5
Staffing: Inter-Disciplinary Approach.....		11-7
Administrative Authority.....		11-7
Regulatory Flexibility.....		11-8

Clear Regulations and Standards.....	11-8
Legal Challenges.....	11-10
Regional Solutions.....	11-10
Total Risk Management.....	11-12
Maintenance.....	11-12
Monitoring/Evaluation.....	11-12
Modeling and Performance Auditing.....	11-14
Nonstructural Source Control Strategies.....	11-15
Retrofitting.....	11-15
Technology Transfer.....	11-16
Guidance for Practices Such as Riparian Corridor Preservation and Restoration.....	11-16
Public Involvement and Education.....	11-17
Conclusion.....	11-18
References.....	11-19

Chapter 12 Summary and Conclusions12-1 **James P. Heaney, Robert Pitt, and Richard Field**

Summary and Conclusions.....	12-1
Chapter 2: Principles of Integrated Urban Water Management.....	12-1
Chapter 3: Sustainable Urban Water Management.....	12-1
Chapter 4: Source Characterization.....	12-1
Chapter 5: Receiving Water and Other Impacts.....	12-2
Chapter 6: Collection Systems.....	12-3
Chapter 7: Assessments of Stormwater Best Management Practices Technology.....	12-3
Chapter 8: Stormwater Storage-Treatment-Reuse Systems.....	12-4
Chapter 9: Urban Stormwater and Watershed Management: A Case Study.....	12-4
Chapter 10: Cost Analysis and Financing of Urban Water Infrastructure.....	12-5
Chapter 11: Institutional Arrangements.....	12-5

Appendix Innovative Stormwater Management in New Development: Planning Case StudyA-1 **Brian W. Mack, Michael F. Schmidt, and Michelle Solberg**

Introduction.....	A-1
Background.....	A-1
The Master Planning Process.....	A-3
Program Goals.....	A-3

Flood Control.....	A-5
Water Quality Control.....	A-5
Ecosystem Management.....	A-5
Levels of Service.....	A-6
Methodology.....	A-9
Stormwater Modeling.....	A-9
Hydrologic Model.....	A-9
Hydraulic Model.....	A-9
Water Quality Model.....	A-10
Hydrologic Parameters.....	A-10
Subbasin and Hydrologic Unit Areas.....	A-11
Rainfall Intensities and Quantities.....	A-11
Rainfall for Water Quality Modeling.....	A-11
Rainfall for Runoff Modeling.....	A-11
Soil Types and Capabilities.....	A-13
Overland Flow Parameters.....	A-14
Land Use and Impervious Areas.....	A-15
Hydraulic Parameters.....	A-16
Structures/Facilities.....	A-17
Stage-Area Relationships.....	A-19
Stage and Discharge Data.....	A-19
Floodplains and Floodways.....	A-21
Water Quality Parameters.....	A-22
Selection of Water Quality Loading Factors.....	A-22
Identification of Pollutants.....	A-23
Selection of Stormwater Pollution Loading Factors.....	A-23
Land Use Load Factors.....	A-24
Open / Nonurban Land Use Load Factors.....	A-25
Water Bodies.....	A-25
Major Roads.....	A-25

Recommendation of Stormwater Pollutant Loading Factors.....	A-25
Delivery Ratio/Travel Time.....	A-27
Point Source Discharge.....	A-27
Best Management Practice Pollutant Removal Efficiencies.....	A-27
Surface Water Quality Classifications.....	A-28
Historical Water Quality Monitoring Data.....	A-30
Evaluation of Best Management Practices.....	A-32
Best Management Practice Considerations.....	A-32
Alternative Best Management Practices.....	A-33
Structural Stormwater Controls.....	A-33
Non-Structural Source Controls.....	A-33
Operation and Maintenance (O&M).....	A-34
Regional Versus Onsite Structural Best Management Practice.....	A-34
Onsite Approach.....	A-34
Regional Approach.....	A-35
Best Management Practice Implementation Considerations.....	A-40
Recommended Best Management Practices.....	A-43
Introduction.....	A-43
Pretreatment Best Management Practices.....	A-44
Minimization of Directly Connected Impervious Area.....	A-44
Landscaped Swales and Grass-Lined Swales.....	A-44
Curb Connections to Swales.....	A-46
Capture Ratios of Swales.....	A-49
Oil-Water Separators.....	A-49
Sediment Forebays.....	A-49
Source Reduction.....	A-52
Wet Detention Location and Sizing Criteria.....	A-52
Regional Facility Location Criteria.....	A-52
Regional Facility Sizing Methodology.....	A-52
Live Pool Volume.....	A-53
Live Pool Volume Bleed-Down Requirements.....	A-53

Permanent Pool Volume.....	A-54
Flood Control Requirements.....	A-56
Regional Stormwater System Review Considerations.....	A-58
Water Quality Results.....	A-58
Introduction.....	A-58
Scenarios.....	A-59
Future Land Use with Recommended Best Management Practices.....	A-59
Water Quantity Results.....	A-62
Introduction.....	A-62
Model Calibration.....	A-62
Level of Service and Problem Area Definitions.....	A-63
Water Quantity Evaluation of Existing PSWMS.....	A-64
Proposed Regional Wet Detention Facilities.....	A-67
Use of Existing Borrow Pits as Stormwater Facilities.....	A-68
Flood Control Benefits.....	A-68
Recommendations.....	A-72
Introduction.....	A-72
Capital Improvement Program for Structural Controls.....	A-73
Review of Factors.....	A-73
Technical Feasibility and Reliability.....	A-73
System Maintainability.....	A-73
Sociopolitical Acceptability.....	A-73
Economics.....	A-73
Environmental Consistency.....	A-74
Financial Ability.....	A-74
CIP Summary.....	A-74
Project Phasing.....	A-75
Operation and Maintenance.....	A-75
Nonstructural Controls.....	A-79
Monitoring.....	A-81
Recommended Monitoring Program.....	A-81

Rainfall.....	A-81
Water Quality.....	A-81
Water Quantity.....	A-81
Mosquito Control.....	A-82
Data Sources and Bibliography.....	A-83

Tables

2-1	Changing patterns of automobile use in the U.S., 1915-1996.....	2-3
2-2	Case studies on “urbanizing” suburbs and areas where infill has successfully occurred.....	2-14
2-3	Case studies using intermodal transportation policies that consider environmental impacts.....	2-15
2-4	Types of storms contributing to stormwater runoff in Chicago, IL.....	2-23
2-5	Site coverage for three land uses in Olympia, WA.....	2-26
2-6	Attributes of 20 th century neighborhoods in the U.S.....	2-31
2-7	Attributes of dwelling units located on traditional grid street network-total imperviousness.....	2-34
2-8	Attributes of dwelling units located on traditional grid street network-directly connected imperviousness.....	2-34
2-9	Attributes of dwelling units located on traditional grid street network-total imperviousness.....	2-37
2-10	Attributes of dwelling units located on traditional grid street network-directly connected imperviousness.....	2-37
2-11	Attributes of thirteen contemporary one story houses-total imperviousness.....	2-38
2-12	Attributes of thirteen contemporary one story houses-directly connected imperviousness.....	2-38
2-13	Relationship between street length and dwelling unit density for a five acre rectangular block of dimensions 660 feet by 300 feet.....	2-40
2-14	Effect of dwelling unit density on CA in the Rational formula.....	2-41
2-15	Relationship between dwelling unit density and area per lot.....	2-42
2-16	Street mileage in the U.S.....	2-48
2-17	Condensed summary of national design standards for residential streets.....	2-50
2-18	Relationship between number of dwelling units, traffic generation, and residential congestion.....	2-50
2-19	Parking demand ratios for selected land uses and activities.....	2-52
3-1	Summary of indoor water use for 12 cities in North America.....	3-10
3-2	Summary of indoor and outdoor water use in Boulder, Denver, Eugene, Seattle, and San Diego.....	3-11
3-3	Summary of indoor and outdoor water use in Phoenix, Scottsdale, Waterloo, Walnut Valley, Los Virgenes, and Lompoc.....	3-11
3-4	Number of toilet flushes per day and proportion related to fecal flushes.....	3-13
3-5	Typical lot sizes and irrigable area, King County, WA.....	3-16
3-6	Annual precipitation and days with rain for selected U.S. cities.....	3-22
3-7	Attributes of two neighborhoods in Melbourne, Australia.....	3-25

3-8	Simulated performance of modified urban systems.....	3-26
3-9	Assumed common attributes of representative neighborhoods in Denver, CO and New York, NY.....	3-31
3-10	Assumed indoor water use for Denver, CO and New York, NY neighborhoods.....	3-31
3-11	Estimated monthly outdoor water use in Denver, CO and New York, NY.....	3-32
3-12	Total monthly water use for representative residential areas in Denver, CO and New York, NY.....	3-33
3-13	Total monthly wastewater flows for Denver, CO and New York, NY.....	3-37
3-14	Monthly precipitation and runoff for Denver, CO and New York, NY.....	3-38
3-15	Final monthly water budget for Denver, CO.....	3-41
3-16	Final monthly water budget for New York, NY.....	3-42
4-1	Uses and sources for organic compounds found in stormwater.....	4-4
4-2	Common elements in the Lithosphere.....	4-5
4-3	Common elements in soils.....	4-6
4-4	Street dirt loadings and deposition rates.....	4-11
4-5	Suspended solids washoff coefficients.....	4-27
4-6	Summary of reported rain quality.....	4-30
4-7	Atmosphere dustfall quality.....	4-31
4-8	Bulk precipitation quality.....	4-33
4-9	Urban bulk precipitation deposition rates.....	4-34
4-10	Summary of observed street dirt mean chemical quality.....	4-37
4-11	Summary of observed particulate quality for other source areas.....	4-38
4-12	Sheetflow quality summary for other source areas.....	4-39
4-13	Sheetflow quality summary for undeveloped landscaped and freeway pavement areas.....	4-45
4-14	Source area bacteria sheetflow quality summary.....	4-46
4-15	Source area filterable pollutant concentration summary.....	4-47
4-16	Numbers of samples collected from each source area type.....	4-48
4-17	Toxic pollutants analyzed in samples.....	4-50
4-18	Fraction of samples rated as toxic.....	4-52
4-19	Stormwater toxicants detected in at least 10% of the source area sheetflow samples.....	4-55
4-20	Relative toxicity of samples using Microtox™.....	4-59
5-1	Groundwater contamination potential for stormwater pollutants.....	5-15
6-1	Variations of infiltration allowances among cities.....	6-7
6-2	Comparison of average daily wastewater and infiltration for one mile of 8 inch sanitary sewer based on 500 gpd/ldm.....	6-11
6-3	Causes of SSOs in Fayetteville, AR.....	6-19

6-4	Causes of SSOs in Miami, FL.....	6-19
6-5	Typical design storm frequencies.....	6-20
6-6	Comparison of recommended minimum sewer grades and velocities over the years.....	6-23
6-7	Recommended critical shear stress to move sewer deposits.....	6-24
6-7	Annual operating costs of vacuum and gravity sewer systems as of 1995.....	6-30
6-9	Pump data and O&M costs for low pressure sewer systems.....	6-32
7-1	Sensitivity of the BMP capture volume in Denver, CO.....	7-12
7-2	BMP pollutant removal ranges in percent.....	7-29
7-3	An assessment of design robustness technology for BMPs.....	7-32
7-4	Summary assessment of structural BMP effectiveness potential.....	7-34
8-1	Water budget calculations for San Francisco, CA.....	8-12
8-2	Water storage tank calculations for San Francisco, CA.....	8-15
8-3	Summary of annual data for selected stations.....	8-20
9-1	Boulder Creek watershed streamflows on Main Boulder Creekbelow Broadway in Boulder, CO.....	9-6
9-2	Monthly precipitation in Boulder, CO, 1949-1993.....	9-10
9-3	Summary of monthly and annual storm event statistics for Boulder, CO, 1949-1993.....	9-11
9-4	Summary of surface water records for Boulder Creek Watershed.....	9-14
9-5	Land use in the City of Boulder, CO service area - 1995.....	9-19
9-6	Drainage areas for Boulder and Boulder Creek Watershed.....	9-22
9-7	Comparison of water use and wastewater flows, 1992.....	9-27
9-8	Recreational activities supported by flows in Boulder Creek.....	9-31
9-9	Overall water budget for calendar year 1992 (flow in cfs).....	9-37
9-10	Measured and computed monthly flowrates in 1992.....	9-39
9-11	Monthly flows in Boulder Creek at 28 th St. for calendar year 1992.....	9-40
9-12	Monthly flows in Boulder Creek for calendar year 1992, above, within and below the City of Boulder (in cfs).....	9-42
9-13	Total sources of flow, Boulder Creek, CO, 1992 (in cfs).....	9-43
9-14	Trends in annual performance of 75 th St. WWTP, 1988 - 1994.....	9-53
9-15	Trends in monthly performance of 75 th St. WWTP.....	9-53
10-1	Effect of dwelling unit density and irrigation rate on indoor and outdoor water use.....	10-2
10-2	Effect of dwelling unit density on wastewater and infiltration/inflow.....	10-2
10-3	Effect of dwelling unit density and runoff rates on quantities of stormwater runoff.....	10-2

10-4	Sanitary sewer pipe in place for various city sizes.....	10-4
10-5	Street mileage in the U.S. - 1995.....	10-5
10-6	Summary of water pipe diameters and lengths in Boulder, CO.....	10-6
10-7	Typical capital cost equations for water resources facilities.....	10-12
10-8	Sanitary sewer pipe costs and flow rates.....	10-14
10-9	Estimated 1998 sanitary sewer pipe costs per dwelling unit for various dwelling unit densities.....	10-17
10-10	Cost equations for CSO control technology.....	10-19
10-11	Present (1998) value of cost of treating stormwater runoff.....	10-21
10-12	Estimated (1998) storage cost per dwelling unit.....	10-21
A-1	Existing levels of Service for Water Quantity.....	A-8
A-2	Global Horton Infiltration Parameters.....	A-14
A-3	Impervious by land Use Category.....	A-17
A-4	Field Estimated Normal Pool and Seasonal High Water Elevations.....	A-20
A-5	Event Mean Concentrations and Impervious Percentages Recommended for the Watershed Management Model.....	A-26
A-6	Average Annual Pollutant Removal rates for Retention Basins, Detention Basin and Swale BMPs.....	A-29
A-7	Annual Trophic State Index Results.....	A-31
A-8	1994 Summary of Lake Secchi Disk Measurement Chlorophyll-A Concentrations and Nitrogen and Phosphorus Concentrations.....	A-32
A-9	Biological Quality of Selected lakes in Orange County.....	A-32
A-10	BMP Selection Feature Requirements vs. Benefits.....	A-42
A-11	Average Annual Loadings for Existing and future Land Use Conditions With Recommended BMPs for the Future Condition Entire Lake Hart Study Area.....	A-61
A-12	Comparison of Reported and simulated Peak Surface Water Elevations.....	A-64
A-13	Excessive Velocity Determination for Future Land Use.....	A-67
A-14	Changes in Surface Area of Sites Currently Existing as Borrow Pits.....	A-72
A-15	Conceptual Capital Cost Estimate.....	A-77
A-16	Annual Operation and Maintenance Cost Summary.....	A-79

Figures

2-1	Trends in U.S. population and ownership of automobiles.....	2-3
2-2	Trends in vehicles per capita in the U.S.....	2-4
2-3	Trends in vehicle miles per capita in the U.S.....	2-4
2-4	Rainfall-runoff relationships for unit area, Chicago, IL.....	2-24
2-5	Flow sources for example medium density residential areas Having clayey soils, Milwaukee, WI.....	2-24
2-6	Relation of the coefficient of runoff for urban areas to imperviousness.....	2-26
2-7	Imperviousness as a function of developed population density.....	2-27
2-8	Example urban lot.....	2-29
2-9	Typical unit residential area, Chicago, IL.....	2-32
2-10	Aerial view of 10 blocks in an older neighborhood in Boulder, CO.....	2-33
2-11	Relationship between street length and dwelling unit density for a five acre rectangular block of dimensions 660 feet by 330 feet.....	2-40
2-12	Relationship between dwelling unit density and area per lot.....	2-43
2-13	Watershed imperviousness and the storm runoff coefficient.....	2-43
2-14	Effect of dwelling unit density on imperviousness.....	2-44
3-1	Early view of the systems approach to urban water management.....	3-4
3-2	Water budget for urban water systems.....	3-5
3-3	The urban hydrologic system.....	3-8
3-5	Hourly variability of indoor water use in 88 houses, Boulder, Co.....	3-12
3-6	Hourly variability in total residential water use for 88 houses, Boulder, Co.....	3-19
3-6	DWF., I/I and total wastewater flow, Boulder, CO, 1995.....	3-20
3-7	Front yard of Casa del Agua.....	3-23
3-8	Back yard of Casa del Agua.....	3-24
3-9	Consumption of water in Adelaide, Australia according to quality.....	3-28
3-10	Availability of wastewaters in Adelaide, Australia according to quality.....	3-29
3-11	Typical monthly water supply and demand, Adelaide, Australia.....	3-30
3-12	Flow chart of proposed integrated water system for Adelaide, Australia.....	3-30
3-13	Average water use, Denver, CO.....	3-34
3-14	Average water use, New York, NY.....	3-34
3-15	Monthly residential wastewater discharge, Denver, CO.....	3-36
3-16	Monthly residential wastewater discharge, New York, NY.....	3-36

4-1	Deposition and accumulation of street dirt.....	4-10
4-2	Particle size distribution of HDS test (high rain intensity, dirty, and smooth street).....	4-18
4-3	Particle size distribution for LCR test (light rain intensity, clean, and rough street).....	4-18
4-4	Washoff plots for HCR test (high rain intensity, clean, and rough street).....	4-19
4-5	Washoff plots for LCR test (light rain intensity, clean, and rough street).....	4-20
4-6	Washoff plots for HDR test (high rain intensity, dirty, and rough street).....	4-21
4-7	Washoff plots for LDR test (light rain intensity, dirty, and rough street).....	4-22
4-8	Washoff plots for HCS test (high rain intensity, clean, and smooth street).....	4-23
4-9	Washoff plots for LCS test (light rain intensity, clean, and smooth street).....	4-24
4-10	Washoff plots for HDS test (high rain intensity, dirty, and smooth street).....	4-25
4-11	Washoff plots for LCS replicate test (light rain intensity, clean, and smooth street).....	4-26
4-12	Tenth percentile particle sizes for stormwater inlet flows.....	4-29
4-13	Fiftieth percentile particle sizes for stormwater inlet flows.....	4-29
4-14	Ninetieth percentile particle sizes for stormwater inlet flows.....	4-29
6-1	Typical entry points of inflow and infiltration.....	6-8
6-2	Annual contribution of I/I.....	6-9
6-3	Monthly contribution of I/I.....	6-10
6-4a	Comparison of infiltration flow rates and residential flow rates for a one mile long, eight inch sanitary sewer (high population density).....	6-12
6-4b	Comparison of infiltration flow rates and residential flow rates for a one mile long, eight inch sanitary sewer (medium population density).....	6-13
6-4c	Comparison of infiltration flow rates and residential flow rates for a one mile long, eight inch sanitary sewer (low population density).....	6-14
6-5	Histogram of average annual residential wastewater and I/I rates on a per capita basis from 102 U.S. cities.....	6-15
6-6	Estimated occurrence of SSO by cause.....	6-19
6-7	Typical vacuum sewer system schematic.....	6-29
6-8	Per capita construction costs for different sanitary sewer systems at various population densities.....	6-31
6-9	Components of small diameter gravity sewer (SDGS) system.....	6-34

7-1	BMPs in series to minimize urban stormwater runoff quality impacts.....	7-4
7-2	Comparing traditional and minimized directly connected impervious area drainage.....	7-7
7-3	Ratio of events captured as a function of the normalized detention volume.....	7-11
7-4	Total phosphorous “percent removal efficiency” and effluent concentrations for a peat-sand filter as a function of influent concentration.....	7-17
8-1	Concept of stormwater reuse residential storage system.....	8-8
8-2	Monthly precipitation for selected stations in the U.S., means and extremes.....	8-9
8-3	Water budgets for selected stations in the U.S.....	8-10
8-4	Water budget for San Francisco, CA.....	8-12
8-5	Cities used in water balance analysis.....	8-16
8-6	Utilization of stormwater by region.....	8-18
8-7	Water deficit by region.....	8-21
8-8	Projected residential stormwater storage tank size for studied locations.....	8-22
9-1	Boulder Creek Watershed, CO.....	9-5
9-2	Monthly inflows of Boulder Creek to Boulder, CO.....	9-7
9-3	Mean annual precipitation in Boulder, CO.....	9-9
9-4	Mean monthly precipitation in Boulder, CO.....	9-9
9-5	Relative frequency for runoff producing events in Boulder, CO.....	9-11
9-6	Runoff producing events per month in Boulder, CO.....	9-12
9-7	Average rainfall duration per event in Boulder, CO.....	9-12
9-8	Average rainfall per event for Boulder, CO.....	9-13
9-9	Average runoff producing rainfall per month for Boulder, CO.....	9-13
9-10	Boulder Creek streamflow at Orodell, CO.....	9-15
9-11	Land use in the City of Boulder, CO service area, 1995.....	9-19
9-12	Boulder open space chronology of events.....	9-20
9-13	Boulder open space and public lands.....	9-27
9-14	Monthly water use for Boulder, CO, 1992.....	9-28
9-15	Monthly wastewater volumes for Boulder, CO, 1992.....	9-28
9-16	Monthly wastewater and Boulder Creek flows, 1992.....	9-20
9-17	Boulder Creek potential flood inundation.....	9-31
9-18	Flow in Boulder Creek at the Orodell gauging station, December 25, 1994.....	9-33
9-19	Overall water budget for calendar year 1992.....	9-38
9-20	Boulder Creek monthly flows in 1992.....	9-39
9-21	Monthly flows in Boulder Creek at 28 th St. for calendar year 1992.....	9-40

9-22	Monthly flows in Boulder Creek for calendar year 1992, above, within, and below the City of Boulder.....	9-42
9-23	Total sources of flow for Boulder Creek, CO, 1992.....	9-43
9-24	Effect of flow on BOD load and concentration, Boulder WWTP, 1990-1995.....	9-49
9-25	Effect of flow on SS load and concentration, Boulder WWTP, 1990-1995.....	9-50
9-26	Influent flow to Boulder WWTP, 1990-1995.....	9-52
9-27	Influent vs. effluent SS concentrations, Boulder 75 th St. WWTP.....	9-54
9-28	Influent vs. effluent BOD concentrations, Boulder 75 th St. WWTP.....	9-54
9-29	Boulder WWTP flow vs. flow in Boulder Creek.....	9-59
10-1	Pervious and impervious area as a function of dwelling unit density.....	10-3
10-2	Lot width as a function of dwelling unit density.....	10-3
10-2	Effect of population on the ratio of length of large pipes to length of small pipes.....	10-5
10-4	Total costs of wastewater collection and treatment systems.....	10-9
10-4	Service scale versus capital costs for components of a sewerage system.....	10-9
10-5	Service scale versus operating costs for components of a sewerage system.....	10-10
10-6	Effect of varying density of development on the minimum sewerage system cost/service and scale at which the minimum occurs.....	10-10
10-7	1998 sewer construction costs per foot of length as a function of pipe diameter.....	10-15
10-9	Typical flows versus pipe diameter.....	10-15
10-10	Sewer construction costs per foot of length versus design flow rate.....	10-16
10-11	Effect of dwelling unit density on sanitary sewer construction costs in wet areas.....	10-16
10-12	Effect of dwelling unit density on 1995 sanitary sewer construction costs in dry areas.....	10-17
10-13	Construction costs for CSO controls.....	10-19
10-14	Operation and maintenance costs for CSO controls.....	10-20
10-15	Cost of a ground level prestressed concrete storage tank in 1995 as a function of volume.....	10-22
10-16	Monthly stormwater management fees.....	10-25
A-1	Southeast Annexation Area Vicinity Map.....	A-2
A-2	Study Area and PSWMS.....	A-4
A-3	Water Quantity LOS.....	A-7
A-4	Raingauge Locations.....	A-12

A-5	Existing PSWMS Model Schematic Map.....	A-18
A-6	BMP Treatment Train Concept.....	A-36
A-7	Design for Retention/Detention Facility.....	A-37
A-8	Onsite vs. Regional BMPs.....	A-38
A-9	Typical Multi-Use Stormwater Facility.....	A-41
A-10	Minimization of DCIA and Uses of Grass Lined Swales.....	A-45
A-11	Landscaped Retention Pretreatment Swales with Raised7 Inlets.....	A-47
A-12	Roadside Swales.....	A-48
A-13	Percent Annual Runoff Volume Captured for Medium Density Residential.....	A-50
A-14	Typical Wet Pond with Forebay.....	A-51
A-15	Problem Identification Map.....	A-66
A-16	Conceptual Regional Facility Map.....	A-69
A-17	Regional Wet Detention Facility Locations.....	A-70
A-18	Alternative PSWMS Model Schematic Map.....	A-71
A-19	Capital Improvements Plan Map.....	A-76

Abbreviations and Acronyms

A	Area
AASHTO	Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials
ac-ft	Acre-foot
ADT	Average daily traffic
AMSA	Association of Metropolitan Sewerage Agencies
APWA	American Public Works Association
ASCE	American Society of Civil Engineers
AWRA	American Water Resources Association
AWWA	American Water Works Association
AWWARF	American Water Works Association Research Foundation
BASINS	Better Assessment Science Integration Point and Nonpoint Sources
BCW	Boulder Creek Watershed
BMP	Best management practice
BOD	Biochemical oxygen demand
C	Runoff coefficient (in Rational method)
C of V	Coefficient of variation (standard deviation/mean)
CCA	Copper, chromium, arsenic
COD	Chemical oxygen demand
CSO	Combined sewer overflow
CY	Calendar year
DBO	Design-build-operate
DCIA	Directly connected impervious area (See IA)
DSS	Decision support systems
DU	Dwelling unit
DUD	Dwelling unit density
DWF	Dry weather flow
EPA	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
FEMA	Federal Emergency Management Agency
FHA	Federal Housing Administration
FHWA	Federal Highway Administration
fps	Feet per second
ET	Evapotranspiration
gpcd	Gallons per capita per day
gpd/inch	Gallons per day per inch diameter per mile
GIS	Geographic information system
ha	Hectare
HCR	High rain intensity, Clean, and Rough street
HCS	High rain intensity, Clean, and Smooth street
HDR	High rain intensity, Dirty, and Rough street
HDS	High rain intensity, Dirty, and Smooth street
HOV	High occupancy vehicle
HUD	U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development
I	Imperviousness

IA	Impervious area (See DCIA)
IBDU	Isobutylidene diurea
I/I	Infiltration and/or inflow
ITE	Institute of Transportation Engineers
ISS	Integrated storm-sanitary system
J	Julian day number (e.g., J=365 for December 31)
kl	Kiloliter
l	Liter
L	Length of street per dwelling unit
lb/ft ²	Pound per square foot
LCE	Life-cycle engineering
LCR	Light rain intensity, Clean, and Rough street
LCS	Light rain intensity, Clean and Smooth street
LDR	Light rain intensity, Dirty, and Rough street
LPS	Low pressure sewers
m	Meter
MCTT	Multi-chambered treatment train
mgd	Million gallons per day
ml	Milliliter
mm	Millimeter
MMI	Man-machine interface
MTBE	Methyl-tert-butyl ether
MTBSC	Mean time between service calls
MVS	Modern vacuum system
N/m ²	Neuton per square meter
NAREUS	North American End Use Study
NCRS	National Resource Conservation Service (formerly, SCS, Soil Conservation Service)
NMC	Nine minimum controls
NPDES	National Pollution Discharge Elimination System
NPS	Non-point source
NSF	National Science Foundation
NURP	Nationwide Urban Runoff Program
NWS	National Weather Service
O&M	Operation and maintenance
OIA	Other impervious area
OWRR	Office of Water Resources Research
P	Precipitation (inches)
PAH	Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
PD	Population density
PET	Potential evapotranspiration
POC	Purgable organic carbon
PSCO	Public Service Company of Colorado
R	Runoff volume
RCRA	Resource Conservation and Recovery Act
ROW	Right of way

RPE	Runoff producing event
RTC	Real time control
SCADA	Supervisory control and data acquisition
SCS	Soil Conservation Service (now the NRCS, National Resource Conservation Service)
SDC	System development charges
SDGS	Small diameter gravity sewer
SOV	Single occupancy vehicle
STD	Standard deviation
STEP	Septic tank effluent pumping
SS	Suspended solids
SSES	Sewer System Evaluation Survey
SSO	Sanitary sewer overflow
STORM	Storage, Treatment, Overflow and Runoff Model
THM	Trihalomethane
TND	Traditional neighborhood development
TOC	Total organic carbon
TSS	Total suspended solids
μm	Micrometer
UF	Urea formaldehyde
ULI	Urban Land Institute
USEPA	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
USGS	U.S. Geological Survey
UV	Ultraviolet
UWRRC	Urban Water Resources Research Council (of ASCE)
VMT	Vehicle miles traveled
VOC	Volatile organic compound
WARMF	Watershed Analysis Risk Management Framework
WEF	Water Environment Federation
WET	Whole effluent toxicity
WSIUA	Water sustainability in urban areas
WWF	Wet weather flow

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